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ABSTRACT

Three presentations are provided from Symposium 15, Management Development, of the Academy of Human Resource Development (HRD) 2000 Conference Proceedings. "Conceptualizing Global Leadership from Multiple Perspectives: An Analysis of Behavioral Ratings" (Allan H. Church) examines the underlying nature of global leadership behavior using multi-rater feedback data from senior managers, direct reports, peers, and supervisors of a large global automotive industry organization. Its findings suggest the importance of a systemic learning orientation and show non-standard differences by rater type. "Comparing Managerial Careers, Management Development and Management Education in the United Kingdom with the United States: Some Theoretical and Practical Implications" (Graeme Martin, Mark Butler) addresses three lines of questioning: the new rhetoric of careers in the new economy, evidence on changing organizational forms and implications for careers and management development and education, and the future of management education and role of business schools. "The Impact of Facilitative Leadership: Multi-Rater Measurement of Behavioral Outcomes" (Valerie L. Weisman) reveals these study outcomes: perceived facilitative behaviors are critical in best practices of leaders; performance outcomes of leaders and members are linked; multi-rater feedback measures are important; and the facilitative managerial-leadership model is very effective in harnessing resources and human capital to meet business challenge. The papers contain reference sections. (YLB)

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Conceptualizing Global Leadership From Multiple Perspectives: An Analysis of Behavioral Ratings

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Multirater feedback data collected from 264 senior managers, 825 direct reports, 1,001 peers and 264 supervisors of a large global organization in the automotive industry were used to examine the underlying nature of global leadership behavior and self-other ratings agreement. Consistent with prior research, findings suggested the singular importance of having a systemic learning orientation. Other non-standard differences by rater type were evident. Implications of these results for understanding global leadership are discussed.

Keywords: Global Leadership, Managerial Behaviors, Multirater Feedback

The last decade of the twentieth century has seen a number of significant and highly influential changes in the worldwide business environment that have fundamentally altered the form and function of organizational existence. From email to e-commerce, from disk-based to distance-based learning, and from international trade to global economics, it would be hard to argue that we are aware of the full impact of these changes on the process of leading and managing on a day-to-day basis (Chandler, 1994; Galagan, 1990; Rhinesmith, 1996; Tichy & Sherman, 1993). Although there are a variety of interesting human resources related issues that might be explored in this regard, such as the role of the internet in recruitment processes (e.g., Stanton, 1999) or the effect of changing workforce demographics (e.g., Jackson, 1992), one area of particular importance and with specific relevance to the uniquely systemic perspective of HRD and OD practitioners (Burke, 1982; Katz & Kahn, 1978) is the impact of globalization on leadership in this new environment.

What is globalization? Rhinesmith (1996) defines globalization as follows: "To be global, a company not only must do business internationally but also must have a corporate culture and value system that allow it to move its resources anywhere in the world to achieve the greatest competitive advantage" (p. 5). Further, he states that in order to support such a value system, leaders and managers need to develop a broader, more systemic perspective that encompasses attention to such areas as cultural flexibility, systems thinking, change management, and continuous learning (Rhinesmith, 1993; 1996). Although not entirely new, these constructs do represent somewhat lesser explored areas for executive and management development efforts and are therefore probably worthy of further examination.

Of course, this type of systemic perspective is not merely a useful framework in its own right. In today's global economy and marketplace, the process of inspiring and motivating employees to think systemically and across boundaries presents a real challenge, particularly when this takes attention away from the immediate aspects of one's job. Nonetheless, some authors (e.g., Drucker, 1992; Hamel & Prahalad, 1994; Rhinesmith, 1996) have argued that having a global mindset may well be a necessity for the continued viability of an organization. If organizations cannot compete or manage in such an environment they will ultimately ease to exist.

But what do we know about leadership and management in these types of settings? Some interesting initial work has been done linking leadership style (i.e., transformation vs. transactional) to certain sets of global leadership practices among executives. More specifically, based on a sample of 391 executives headquartered in the United States, Church and Waclawski (1999a) found that global leadership consisted of four primary components or dimensions: *systemic thinking*, *relationship management*, *managing change*, and *learning orientation*. When compared with a standard measure of leadership style, it was evident that transformational leaders were seen as being significantly higher on each of the four global leadership dimensions then were those with a more transactional style. Their findings support a number of related theories and approaches regarding the importance of having both a systemic as well as a learning-based perspective when managing others (e.g., Burke & Litwin, 1992; Rhinesmith, 1996; Senge, 1990), not to mention the importance of the process (or people) skills that continue to be overlooked by many in research and practice.

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Although an important early step, questions regarding the global applicability of such findings remain. For example, while systemic thinking and a learning orientation may well be applicable across different cultures and settings, a focus on building strong interpersonal relationships might be expressed and experienced (and therefore perhaps rated) differentially in different types of contexts. Similarly, the behaviors comprising the managing change factor in this prior study reflected such actions as being proactive, open to and accepting of changes, clearly communicating reasons for change and providing support to others, which do not appear to reflect management styles in other less individualistically oriented countries (Hofstede, 1980). More research is certainly needed, and with different types of samples in this area of study in order to improve our understanding of the fundamental and consistent facets of global leadership behavior and their impact on managerial performance.

The same argument, of course, can easily be made regarding the need for ratings research using non-U.S. based samples. While numerous published studies now exist that examine feedback from multiple sources (e.g., Church & Waclawski, 1999a; 199b; Furnham, & Stringfield, 1998; Nowack, 1992; Mount et al., 1998), relatively few authors have focused on more diverse populations such as those from truly globalized firms. Thus, while we are quite familiar with self-other ratings trends (e.g., over-rating) and low levels of agreement among standard populations, these patterns have neither been confirmed nor disconfirmed with other types of populations.

The purpose of the following study is to address these needs in the literature by presenting an applied analysis and potential replication of the structure and relationships among behavioral ratings-based data collected from a set of senior leaders (and their direct reports, peers and supervisors) in a global organization headquartered in Japan. By relying on data from a truly global organization, it will be possible to advance the field of global leadership study by providing a comparison of leader behaviors with those from prior research samples. In addition, the nature of the self-other rating relationships will be explored relative to those exhibited in more traditional populations.

Method

The following study was based on data collected for 268 senior level managers from a large global organization in the automotive industry with its corporate headquarters in Tokyo. Representative of its global operations, these managers were stationed throughout the world including the following countries: Australia, Azerbaijan, Bangladesh, Belgium, Brazil, Canada, China, Colombia, Ecuador, Germany, Guatemala, India, Indonesia, Italy, Japan, Korea, New Zealand, Philippines, Poland, Portugal, Russia, Singapore, South Africa, Sweden, Syria, Taiwan, Thailand, United States, and Venezuela. Given the extreme diversity of location, however, no single country represented more than 5% of the total. Although the sample was comprised primarily of senior level managers (i.e., country heads) in this organization, due to the cultural sensitivity of the rating process in the present setting, no demographic questions were asked on the ratings form, thus these data (e.g., gender, age, tenure, etc,) were not available for possible moderator analyses.

In total, leadership ratings were collected from 264 focal managers (self-ratings), 825 direct reports ($\underline{M}$ = 3.33, $\underline{SD}$ = 1.55), 1001 peers ($\underline{M}$ = 3.78, $\underline{SD}$ = 1.52), and 264 supervisors. Since all focal managers were instructed to distribute 6 direct report and 6 peer forms each, these data represent response rates of 51.3% and 62.3%, respectively. These figures are somewhat low compared with prior studies of senior level populations (e.g., Church & Waclawski, 1999a; 1999b), which may reflect culture differences with respect to response tendencies (e.g., most report ratings research samples in the literature are typically heavily biased toward individuals located in the United States). Almost all participants and their supervisors, however, did respond to the assessment process (98.5% for both rater groups).

All behavioral ratings were collected in conjunction with a multirater feedback-based executive development initiative designed to enhance the leadership skills of those attending. A process frequently used by practitioners for a variety of developmental and appraisal purposes (e.g., Antonioni, 1996; Bracken, 1994; Church, 1995; Church & Waclawski, 1999b; McLean, 1996; Tornow, 1993; Van Velsor, Taylor Leslie, 1993), multirater feedback provides a number of opportunities for research as well. The results were delivered in the form of individual feedback reports in an offsite setting by experienced facilitators, which is common in these types of feedback-based efforts. Since the assessment process was intended to be developmental in nature, all instructions, instrumentation and follow-up procedures stressed the confidentiality of the process as well as the standard protections associated with reporting procedures (e.g., no data are provided unless 3 or more responses were received from direct reports and peers). This approach was taken in order to enhance the validity and utility of the data obtained (Bracken, 1994; Church & Waclawski, 1998; Harris, 1994; Ostroff, 1993).

The measure used in this analysis was a 27 item instrument designed to assess various elements of global leadership in the present organization. Although a few of the items were specifically created and/or modified for this setting, the majority were chosen from a larger set of practices (and many from a related global leadership instrument) that have been used successful with other organizations and samples. The HR function of the organization and an external consulting firm were actively involved in the development of the instrument. All items were positively worded and rated on a 1 to 5 extent scale, where 1 = to a very small extent, 3 = to some extent, and 5 = to a very great extent. Averaged direct report and average peer ratings were used for all analyses since these represent a closer approximation to the true score for a given behavioral set (Nunnally, 1978). Overall, the internal consistency for the total instrument (i.e., for the summary scores) was strong, particularly since these were only 27 items in total, ranging from a low of .83 for self-assessments to a high of .96 for direct reports.

Although not a central component of this research, in order to compare data from this sample with other studies, self-direct report ratings congruence— an operationalization of the construct of managerial self-awareness (Church, 1997)--was also computed. This was done using two different methods: (a) the collective level of agreement between senior manager and average direct report ratings using a standard index of profile similarity *d*, (e.g., Church, 1997; Church & Waclawski, 1999a; 1999b; Nunnally, 1978; Tisak & Smith, 1994); and a four-group categorical agreement method (e.g., Church, 1998; Church & Waclawski, 1999a; Yammarino & Atwater, 1997) whereby participants are classified as under-raters, lower performing accurate-raters, higher performing accurate-raters, or over-raters based on a comparison of total scores.

Results & Discussion

First, analyses were conducted using total scores for all 27 items to explore basic ratings effects for this sample by perspective. Table 1 provides an overview of the descriptive statistics and correlations for the summary scores and self-direct report difference score. In general, these correlations were actually quite consistent with prior ratings research (e.g., Church, 1997; Church & Waclawski, 1999a; Harris & Schaubroeck, 1988; McLean, 1996) with low to moderate correlations among various rater groups. Thus, it would appear that typical ratings effects reported in other studies are consistent across the present global context as well.

Table 1. Descriptive Statistics for Summary Ratings

	M	*SD*	*Self*	*Direct Reports*	*Peers*	*Supervisors*	*S-D Profile Similarity*
Self	3.69	.46	*.83*				
Direct Reports	3.82	.47	.26**	*.96*			
Peers	3.73	.44	.23**	.22**	*.95*		
Supervisors	3.76	.55	.16*	.09	.15*	*.90*	
Self-Dir Profile Similarity	0.92	.30	-.44**	-.11	-.18*	-.01	

Note: * $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$, reliabilities are printed on the diagonal

The only finding of particular note among the correlation matrix was the fact that self-direct report and self-peer relationships were generally higher ($r = .26$, $p < .01$ and $r = .23$, $p < .01$, respectively) than co-worker correlations (e.g., direct report-peer, direct report-supervisor, peer-supervisor). This is considerably inconsistent with prior research and meta-analytic findings (Harris & Schaubroeck, 1988) where other-other rating correlations are almost always higher than similar self-other values. While it is impossible to know for certain why this trend occurred, one strong possibility is the impact of cultural differences between samples— i.e., perhaps the managers in the present global organizational setting reflect a slightly more collectivist orientation (Hofstede, 1980) than those from prior research, most of whom were based primarily in the United States. If such were the case, however, one might expect the self-other correlations to be even stronger than those reported here, which were typically low overall. Nonetheless, there would appear to be a somewhat different pattern emerging here, particularly given the lack of significant relationship between direct report and supervisor ratings.

Another interesting difference inherent in the present dataset was the fact that these senior executives actually tended to rate themselves significantly lower than did their direct reports ($t = 3.71$, $p < .001$), reflecting the possible presence of a modesty bias of some sort. Although supervisor and peer ratings were also higher in value among the present sample than were self-assessments, these differences were not statistically significant. The

former pattern, however, is again atypical among datasets based on samples of managers from the United States (e.g., Church, 1997; Church & Waclawski, 1999a; 1999b; Nowack, 1992; Van Velsor et al., 1993), the United Kingdom (e.g., Church, 1998), and even Australia (e.g., Carless, Mann & Wearing, 1998). In fact, the standard ratings pattern is almost always the opposite— i.e., self-ratings are the highest, followed by almost any group other than direct reports.

Finally, while the value of the profile similarity as calculated among the present sample was not particularly unusual (i.e., reflecting an adequate but not superior level of managerial self-awareness as compared with prior samples), it was interesting to note that self-direct report agreement was entirely unrelated to supervisor assessments. In other words, increased levels of self-direct report agreement (without attention to level) were not directly related to supervisor assessments.

Next, in order to examine the underlying structure of the global leadership behaviors assessed and to be able to compare it at the construct level with prior theory and research, a Principal Components factor analysis was conducted using the averaged direct report ratings. This source was used because presumably the direct report perspective more than any other would most accurately reflect leadership style as opposed to those directed more at political (e.g., supervisors) or competitive (e.g., peers) ends. Three factors emerged from this analysis, which accounted for 60.2% of the total variance. Table 2 provides a description of each of these factors.

Table 2. Summary of Global Leadership Factors

Factor Label	Item Content Description	Items	% Var
Systemic Learning	Discusses on-going changes in the global market; facilitates the sharing of global resources and skill sets; discusses current activities and events taking place throughout the organization; emphasizes global teamwork; identifies best practices elsewhere in the organization and learns from them; monitors and communicates global issues; promotes understanding of diverse business activities and customers; promotes constructive discussions regarding how to maximize potential	12	45.9
Cultural Awareness	Is sensitive to differences when dealing with people from different cultural backgrounds; considers the impact of each individual's cultural background when managing cross-cultural teams; demonstrates an awareness of cultural issues when working with others; adjusts the way he/she communicates to take account of cultural differences; understands the impact of his/her cultural background and the values it represents when working with others; considers the impact of cultural differences before approaching situations	8	8.9
Problem Solving	Searches for answers to complicated situations rather than waiting for advice; thinks beyond the immediate context of a problem to achieve creative solutions; manages risks wisely in resolving complex issues; identifies and implements improved ways of serving customer needs	7	5.3

Interestingly enough, the factor reflecting a systemic learning orientation (with managerial behaviors focusing on marketplace analysis, utilizing best practices, identifying skill sets, and improving teamwork and integration) accounted for the overwhelming majority of variability explained across all direct report ratings (45.9%) despite taking less than half the total number of items on the instrument. The prominence of such high level systemic issues and concerns among these senior managers is consistent with prior research on global leadership using more typical samples based (Church & Waclawski, 1999a). However, it is important to note that the systemic thinking and learning orientation dimensions, which were distinct in the U.S. sample, factored together as a single construct here.

The second factor to emerge from the PC analysis was comprised of behaviors reflecting an attention to cross-cultural differences among various individuals. Although somewhat different in orientation than the more general relationship management component identified in other samples (Church & Waclawski, 1999a), it does make sense that acumen in this area would be important when working with various types of interdisciplinary and culturally diverse teams. Of course, given the somewhat varying item content between the two studies, the differential nature of this factor may simply be a more global reflection of the need for relationship management

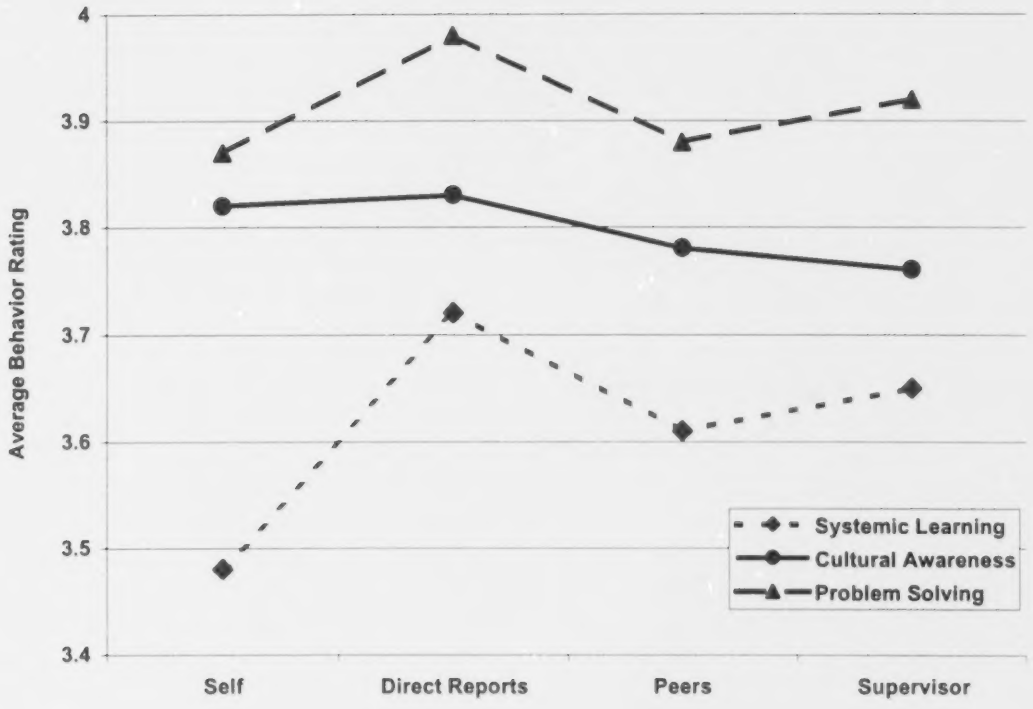
skills in more traditional leadership and management contexts. In other words, being effective at interpersonal relationships in a global setting probably translates to being aware of cultural differences and how these manifest in work and team settings.

Finally, while the third and final factor--problem solving--identified here is not an exact match with prior research, the behavioral emphases on being proactive and improvement orientated do correspond, at least to some extent, to behavioral content of the *managing change*, and portions of the *learning orientation* dimensions (e.g., solutions and risk) from the U.S.-based research. Thus, although not identical in structure, these components are at least moderately consistent with prior factors and theoretical elements of globalization discussed elsewhere (Church & Waclawski, 1999a; Rhinesmith, 1993; 1996). In sum, there would appear to be some significant consistency across the different types of samples regarding the need for a more systemic thinking and learning perspective among global leaders. There was also some degree of overlap regarding the importance of relationships skills and being proactive with respective to problem solving situations.

Although the similarity in findings regarding the underlying nature of global leadership is important in general, the emergence of a primary factor regarding systemic learning across studies should be particularly encouraging for two reasons. First, from a research and practice perspective, this consistency would suggest that efforts directed at enhancing systemic learning skills for future global leaders should be of significant value almost regardless of context. Second, while OD and HRD theory has long been grounded in an open systems perspective (e.g., Burke & Litwin, 1992; Katz & Kahn, 1978; Rummler & Brache, 1990), research that supports this contention at the individual behavioral level should be helpful for future practice as well. All too often, for example, consultants and practitioners are faced with client mindsets from leaders, managers and even internal HR personnel that are far too micro in focus. By demonstrating that one of the key leadership skills for the future is in fact a systemic mindset, new opportunities for organization development and improvement may be opened.

Next, in order to explore differences in the three leadership factors by rater type, subscales were created for each of the four perspectives (self, direct report, peer and supervisor) for additional analysis purposes. ANOVA results for subscale scores by rater type revealed significant effects, however, for the systemic learning factor only F (3, 1037) = 8.12, $p < .001$. Once again, lower than usual self-ratings were responsible for the majority of significant effects, although Scheffé comparisons also indicated that direct report ratings were significantly higher than others' ratings. Moreover, based on the pattern of means (see Figure 1), it would appear that ratings on the systematic learning dimension were responsible for the more general findings observed at the summary score level, given the lack of differences by type on the other two dimensions.

Figure 1. Subscale Means by Rater Type



Although this finding should not be particularly surprising given that the systematic learning dimension did account for the majority of the variance explained in (direct report) ratings, it was interesting nonetheless to see this aspect of global leadership driving the results. Moreover, post-hoc comparisons indicated that mean scores on this dimension were significantly lower, compared with ratings on the other dimensions across all four rater types.

The final set of analysis regarding the level of managerial self-awareness was conducted using the four category method of agreement (Church & Waclawski, 1999a; Yammarino & Atwater, 1997) and was relatively straightforward in nature. Based on a comparison of self and direct report mean scores and variability, senior managers were identified as belonging to one of four groups— i.e., under-raters, accurate lower performing raters, accurate higher performing raters, and over-raters— which were then used for additional analyses. Simple ANOVA results of mean ratings and profile similarity scores and average item differences (added solely for interpretation purposes) indicated typical significant results by groups (see Table 3).

Table 3: Results of Four Category Agreement Method

	N	% Response	Self Ratings	Direct Report Ratings	Profile Similarity Index	Average Item Difference
1. Under-raters	75	30.7	3.30	4.09	1.16	-.78
2. Accurate lower performing raters	51	20.9	3.54	3.61	.81	-.07
3. Accurate higher performing raters	49	20.1	4.04	4.20	.70	-.16
4. Over-raters	69	28.3	3.98	3.44	.97	.54
Significant Scheffé Group Comparisons			4,3,2 > 1 4,3 > 2	3, 1, > 2, 4	1 > 2,3,4 4 > 3	4 > 1, 2, 3 2, 3, > 1

For example, while self and direct report ratings differed significantly by group (as would be expected given the computations involved), peer and supervisor ratings did not yield significant effects in this regard. Thus, as with

the regression results involving the profile similarity index, self-direct report levels of agreement (or disagreement) had little relationship among the present sample to assessments given by peers or supervisors.

The only other finding worthy of note here is in the comparison of the present values of the profile similarity index with those from prior studies. More specifically, while prior research using the three and four group methods often reveal over-raters to have the largest levels of item discrepancy and under-raters to demonstrate very similar (and sometimes not significantly different) levels of self-awareness when compared with the accurate-rater groups, the present actually data show the opposite pattern. For these senior managers, the under-raters represented the most significantly different, and therefore least self-aware group, while over-raters were much closer to the accurate individuals. Moreover, the self-ratings for the under-rating group were particularly low relative to what might be found in other studies. Thus, these differences might suggest that the population studied may indeed be somewhat different in the level of self-perception and assessment behavior.

Summary & Limitations

The purpose of this study was to explore and potentially replicate the nature of the relationship of global leadership ratings from multiple sources, using a more culturally diverse and global sample of senior managers than has been seen in prior research of this nature. In general, the results discussed above would suggest that the nature of global leadership is relatively stable across different organizational samples and settings. While the factors varied to some extent in the present study, there was considerable consistency regarding the importance of the underlying structure of the systemic learning component. Moreover, relationship skills (particularly one's relating to working with individuals and teams from other cultures) and taking a proactive rather than reactive stance appear to be key aspects of global leadership as well. Clearly, in terms of implications for HRD and OD, it is useful to note that all three of these areas are quite familiar to practitioners and well suited for future initiatives and development efforts directed at global leadership. Finally, while there were some interesting differences in the present sample with respect to behavioral rating trends (e.g., lower than normal self-assessments, higher than average self-other correlations), none of these were so unusual as to suggest truly unique interpretations. In sum, the results of this study point to the existence of more similarities than differences in leadership across the global business environment examined here.

The following research does have several limitations, however, which should be noted. First, senior managers from only one organization was studied. Moreover, due to confidentiality concerns among the individuals responsible for the feedback process, very little demographic information (beyond location) on these individuals was available, making moderator and grouping analyses impossible. Although by and large demographic variables such as gender, age and tenure do not typically yield major moderating effects (e.g., Church & Waclawski, 1999b), it is still useful to have these available for analysis and comparative purposes. Further research using other samples is required to determine whether or not the issues discussed here will apply equally well to global leadership in other firms, industries, and contexts.

A second limitation of this study concerns the sample itself. Participation in the assessment process was tied to attendance in a feedback-based development program. Aside from the inherent difference in the nature of ratings obtained for development vs. appraisal purposes (e.g., Antonioni, 1996; Bracken, 1994; Church & Waclawski, 1998; McLean, 1997), this situation may also have implications for generalizability for other samples with respect to potentially greater levels of feedback seeking interest and motivation to change on the part of some individuals. Although participants were selected for participation by senior leadership and the vast majority of senior managers in this corporation were involved in the process, there may still be some biases present.

The third major limitation concerns the nature of the instrumentation used. Although based on prior theory and research on global leadership (Rhinesmith, 1993; 1996) and tested with other samples (Church & Waclawski, 1999a), it is always important to remember that the content of the measurement tool itself defines the nature of any results obtained. Thus, a different set of items pertaining to a competing conceptualization of global leadership, for example, might have produced divergent results. Perhaps some other unmeasured concept, such as the ability to motivate and inspire others, for example, is even more significant for global leadership than having a systemic learning orientation. Similarly, questions reflecting some other construct or skill set entirely would most certainly yield a different factor pattern, though the trends among rater types observed here might well be similar. As with most research efforts, further work is required before conclusions of any sort can truly be offered.

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Comparing Managerial Careers, Management Development and Management Education in the UK with the US: Some Theoretical and Practical Implications

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This paper explores some of the issues surrounding changing patterns of managerial careers, management development and management education in the UK and the US. It addresses three lines of questioning: the new rhetoric of careers in the new economy, the evidence on changing organizational forms and the implications for careers and management development and education, and the future of management education and the role of business schools. The contribution of this paper is a "think piece" and it acts as a backdrop for a comparative study of management development in Scotland and California currently being undertaken by the authors.

Keywords: Management, Careers, Education

The poor state of management development in the UK was recognized as a major contributory factor in the lack of progress of the UK economy during the 1980s (Constable McCormick, 1987; Mangham & Silver, 1986), especially in comparison to major international competitors which included the US (Handy, 1987). Although there are signs that progress has been made in terms of the quantity and quality of management development and education in the UK (Thomson, Mabey, Storey, Gray & Iles, forthcoming), there is little systematic evidence of how the UK is currently doing in comparison to major economies, especially evidence that is up-to-date and reflects on past and current practice. For example, the most recent and as yet unpublished work in the UK (Thomson, Mabey, Storey, Gray & Iles, forthcoming) , whilst otherwise excellent, does little more in its introductory chapters than provide a brief summary of the characteristics of different national systems and provides little or no empirical evidence or pointers from which the UK could learn. It is against this background that we wish to explore some of the more recent issues that impact on management development and education in the UK and US so that we can ask more relevant questions during our forthcoming empirical investigation.

Thus, in this paper, which provides the background to work-in-progress on a comparison of management development in Scotland and California[1], we address three, related lines of questioning:

1. What do the experts say about changing patterns of managerial careers and management development in the US and UK?
2. Is there any substantive evidence of changes in organizational forms that would support the rhetoric on changes in managerial careers and management development in both countries?
3. If, so what are the implications for management educators and developers and the business schools?

What's New? Changing Patterns of Managerial Careers

Our review of the mainly-US literature on careers has pointed to major changes in rhetoric, in which researchers have pointed to new "boundaryless", "protean" and "cellular" patterns career patterns and orientations (Allred, Miles & Snow, 1996; Arthur, Inkson & Pringle, 1999; Hall & Moss, 1998) accompanying major organizational changes, most notably the end of internal labour markets and the "old deal" (Cappelli, 1997, 1998).

There is not the space to review the new deal literature in full (for an outline and critique see Dunford, 1999; Herriot, Hirsh and Reilly, 1998; Roehling, Cavanaugh, Moynihan & Boswell, 1999)[2]. However, a

[1]The study has been sponsored by the new Scottish Council for Management Development and Enterprise who are seeking to gain an insight into practice in Scotland. This body has been charged with facilitating a national management development strategy for submission to the new Scottish Parliament.

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significant line of the argument is that market and organizational changes have occurred during the 1980s and 1990s in the US and the UK (see Gallie, White, Chen & Tomlinson, 1998) but organizational career philosophy has yet to catch up in all but those most "enlightened" organizations which are attuned to current and future trends (Arthur & Rousseau, 1996; Rousseau & Arthur, 1999). In its more extreme from, this is sometimes referred to as the "end of career thesis" or " boundaryless career"; in a less apocalyptic version it is the essentially normative argument concerning the new transactional contract or new deal of employability currently being offered by some employers. For example, the UK researchers, Adamson, Doherty & Viney (1998), have recently argued that "Most organizations are now talking not of opportunities for advancement and/or progression but of opportunities to improve *marketability* and *employability* (their emphasis)" (p. 255). They outlined key changes in career philosophy that were predicated on the break-down in long-term employer-employee relationships and future time orientation of careers. Thus, they foresaw that career progression was no longer likely to involve upward hierarchical movement in the one organization but is more likely to involve lateral development. They argued that, given the current economic and competitive climate, "from both the organizational and individual perspective, in is no longer so apparent how a logical, ordered and sequential career might evolve" (p.255). Thus, as can be seen, the metaphors underlying much of this line of argument is of balancing "agency" (individual and organizational freedom of choice) with "community" (social relations) (Rousseau & Arthur, 1999) and of "career lattices" (Thomson, Mabey, Storey, Gray & Iles, forthcoming) or "jungle gyms" (Gunz, Jalland & Evans, 1998) in which individuals scramble over "upwards, sideways, downwards, diagonal, or in any direction that the jungle gym allows" (p. 22).

Echoing Handy's (1989) comment that lifetime employment represents "bad economics and bad morals", much the same argument has been put forward by Cappelli (1997; 1998) in the US, who has argued that the "old deal" and the recent attempts by some well known US firms to recapture its features was in complete *denial* of the current market situation in the "post re-engineering era". This strategy, at least according to Cappelli, was unlikely to succeed and may even result in companies, particularly those which operate in knowledge-based industries, losing out in competitive labour markets.

A common theme in these works is of managers requirements to display "career resilience" and to participate in the management of their careers by taking greater responsibility for their learning to make themselves more employable (Thomson et al., forthcoming; Waterman, Waterman & Collard, 1994). For example, Hall and Moss (1998) have argued that the myth of old style organizational career contracts in the US is dead (and, in effect only applied to about 5% of the workforce). Instead, they offer the concept of the "protean career" (see figure 2) in which:

"... the person, not the organization, is managing. It consists of all of the person's varied experiences in education, training, working in several organizations, changes in occupational field, etc. The protean person's own personal career choices and the search for self-fulfilment are the unifying or integrating elements in his or her life. The criterion of success is internal (psychological success) not external" (p. 25).

So Much for the Rhetoric: What about the Facts?

Thus, as we can see, the rhetoric implicates organizations in some radical and substantive adaptions to the New Economy, which, in turn, have impacted on managerial careers and management development in particular ways. In the context of this comparative study, however, at least two questions need to be addressed. First, are there likely to be some substantial and lasting differences between the US and other countries such as the UK in their responses to environmental changes? On this point, as Lewin (1999, August) made clear, it is no longer good enough for researchers and managers to continue to believe that US organizations act as a model for the rest of the world: that may have been the case in the 1950s when the US accounted for 75% of global economic activity but is certainly not the case when the US accounts for less than 17%. Second, how widespread and substantive are these in the US and the UK?

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[2] Although Herriot et al. (1998) have pointed to various forms of new deals, Roehling et al., (1999) have undertaken content analysis of the academic and practitioner literature to show that there is agreement, at least at a general level, on what constitutes the "new deal".

Figure 2. The Protean Career Contract (Source: Hall, D. T. and Moss, J. E. (1998) The new protean career contract. *Organizational Dynamics*, Winter, 22-37)

The career is managed by the person, not the organization	The ingredients for success change from: • know how to learn how • job security to employability • organizational career to protean careers, and • from "work self" to "whole self"
The career is a lifelong series of experiences, skills, learnings, transitions and identity changes (career age not chronological age counts)	The organization provides: • challenging assignments, • developmental relations, information and other development resources
Development is: • continuous • self directed • relational, and • found in work challenges but is not necessarily formal training, retraining or upward mobility	The goal is psychological success

In attempting to answer both questions together, there are some indications of differences between the two countries from research into their respective career literatures.. For example, Hall & Moss (1998) have raised doubts as to whether the US was ever characterised by an old deal. These authors have suggested that no more than 5% of US firms were responsible for the traditional picture of careers, thus implying that researchers, in setting up a dualism, have created something of a "straw man". In the UK, researchers have been more sceptical of "breaks with the past". For example, Guest & Conway (1998) have pointed to a much greater sense of stability in careers. On this issue, recent large-scale survey evidence (Gallie, White, Chen & Tomlinson, 1998) highlighted some paradoxical findings that have relevance to our discussion. On the one hand there was clear evidence that (a) employers had been investing more in training and development over the last five years, (b) that employees perceived that their jobs required more skills and (c) that they have received more training than five years ago. This finding was particularly connected to the widespread adoption of new technologies (p.292). On the other hand, one of the most notable of their findings was that employees were less likely to *believe* that their future careers lay in their current organizations, especially given the evidence of de-layering and lack of career promotional prospects in their organizations.

By far the most convincing evidence, however, comes from impressive research by Andrew Pettigrew and colleagues on a world-wide study of corporate re-structuring and new forms of organizing[3] (for some early indications see Ruigrok, Pettigrew, Peck & Whittington, 1999). This work does not provide a much support for the "end of organization" and "end of traditional career" assumptions underpinning the new career literature. At recent conferences, Pettigrew (1999, August; Pettigrew & Whittington, 1999; September, 1999) presented the early results of a large-scale, longitudinal project involving international collaborators from Europe, the US and Japan. The aims of the research were to (a) map the extent of changes in new organizational forms in Europe, Japan and the US with surveys of large scale and middle sized employers, (b) assess the effects on performance of these change, and (c) examine the processes involved in changing from one form to another. They defined changes in organizational forms to mean *changing structures* (e.g. de-centralizing, de-layering, project organizations), *changing processes* (vertical and horizontal communications, investment in IT and investment in novel forms of human resources) and *changing boundaries* (down-scoping or de-diversification, outsourcing and development of strategic alliances). Among the key questions which they addressed were (a) to what extent was there convergence in Europe and between Europe and the US[4], (b) were there any contingencies such as country effects or knowledge intensity of firms or industries, and (c) were changes *supplementary* to existing

[4] The US results have yet to be analyzed.

organizational forms or were they *supplanting* traditional organizational forms, as implied by the more apocalyptic tone of the literature discussed in the previous section of this paper?

The early findings on country effects suggested that there was indeed a common direction of change but from different starting points and that there were variations in the pace and depth of changes in different kinds of firms. In Europe, flatter, decentralized more fluid forms were emerging but the directions and movement varied. There was a large growth in project forms of organizing between 1992-96 and evidence of process changes in terms of investment in horizontal linkages. These changes, however, had to be seen in a context of equally large changes in vertical linkages. Thus they found evidence of a number of dualities, including simultaneous investment in building networks *and* hierarchies but no real evidence of destroying hierarchy (largely because of the importance of performance cultures). To make these more complicated but flatter structures work more effectively, there was evidence of large-scale investment in IT. There were also widespread changes in boundaries with outsourcing particularly prevalent. The trends on de-diversification, however, were much more complex, with little evidence of net de-diversification and a movement into the middle (e.g. conglomerates divesting themselves of some peripheral businesses whilst single product firms were diversifying). Thus, the general picture in Europe was of widespread but not revolutionary changes in which firms, as you would expect, were supplementing rather than supplanting their existing structures. Interestingly, these researchers also found that change in Japanese organizational forms was much slower and less widespread than in Europe, a feature explained by the relative success of Japanese companies during the 1980s and early 1990s.

Pettigrew and his colleagues analysis of these results has produced some interesting conclusions and some important lines of future enquiry for management development and education First there are some important country differences, a finding that is borne out by some early work by Lewin and his colleagues (1999, August). Second, internationalization seemed to be positively related to decentralization and the formation of strategic alliances, whilst the use of project organization, downscoping and strategic decentralization was related to knowledge intensity. Finally, high performance organizations were found to be those that innovated in the three areas of structure, processes and boundaries in a complementary fashion whilst negative performance was found to have been associated with small-scale innovation in only one area (Pettigrew & Whittington, 1999, September).

The conclusion that changes in organizational forms in Europe had been supplementary rather than transformative is echoed by what is probably the best and most recent large-scale survey evidence on trends in managerial careers and management development in the UK by a team of Open University researchers (Thomson, Mabey, Storey, Gray & Iles, forthcoming). Their data, which is based on a survey of AMBA graduates and a survey of more than 500 companies, addresses many of the issues that have been referred to above. Their main conclusions point to a marked degree of variation among companies in their adoption career planning for managers, existence of policies on management development such as succession planning and fast tracking etc. However, there was no strong evidence that companies had abandoned internal labour market polices and their responsibility for developing managers. Nor, from the survey of Association of MBA graduates, was there a widespread feeling that these managers had taken on board the complete responsibility for the own development, although there was some evidence of the emergence of protean and cellular careers. Instead, these researchers have characterised the position in many UK companies as resembling a partnership model, in which both parties accept responsibility for management development.

So What? What are the Implications for Management Development and Education

In line with this less apocalyptic evidence of changes in Europe and, one suspects, the US if we leave aside the arguably, over-hyped knowledge-based sectors of Southern California, Boston and North Carolina, it appears that changes in organizational forms and accompanying career structures are emerging, albeit more slowly and less obviously than the new rhetoric on careers would suggest. Moreover, these changes are broadly in line with a greater degree of (and need for) career resilience and self-development among managers. Thus, while accepting that some companies do take on a degree of responsibility for managing careers, Thomson et al (forthcoming) concluded that, for UK managers, 'the psychological climate has changed (and) that managers are losing their sense of their companies as being the career anchors to which they attach expectations of on-going support".

The emergence of protean career orientations, networking and cellular career structures have significant implications for management development, management educators and for those interested in

learning transfer. For example, as Allred, Miles and Snow (1996) have pointed out, the competencies required for the future will be different from those in traditional organizations and will involve:

- Knowledge-based technical specialities, involving managing oneself as well as managing others and greater computer literacy, .
- Cross-functional and international competencies.
- Collaborative leadership competencies,
- Self-management skills, and
- Personal competencies such as flexibility, integrity and trustworthiness.

Moreover, as Rousseau and Arthur (1999) have argued, firms will need to pursue agency strategies (respect for individual interest and choice) as well as community (mutual support and collective adaption) strategies. These might include offering (a) choices to individuals in designing their employment terms, jobs and career patterns to give them more discretion, and (b) designing employment terms and career opportunities that maximise employees' external, as well as internal, visibility. In doing so, they enhance individuals' employability and thus may well become *employers of choice* (Cappelli, 1998).

What of the Future?

On both sides of the Atlantic there have been serious reflections on the future of management education and the role of university business schools in providing support to managers, particularly if they remain committed to a Mode 1 style of learning, e.g. a focus on knowledge produced by scientists for scientists, university-focused, discipline-based and validated by peer review (Gibbons, et.al, 1994). For example, Huff (1999) at an address to the British Academy of Management and Argyris (1999) have queried the ability of UK and US schools to meet the challenge of the new Mode 2 learning, which is characterised by "knowledge for application", is transdisciplinary, group-based, is validated-in-use and is time critical. In a similar vein, at a recent Academy of Management symposium on the future of management education (Weick, Mintzberg & Senge, 1999, August), Karl Weick made the following points that management educators may find worth reflecting on. His argument was that if we accept some of the previously-discussed rhetoric and assumptions made about the changed nature of organizations and management in the 21st century, managers will require a different set of competencies and a very different response from business schools.

Assumptions about management in the 21st Century (Weick, 1999)

- Managers will approach the limits of their capacity to take on new information created by changing conditions and will suffer from overload. They will need to be roughly right and fast.
- Faster change produces weaker situation, thus values and individuals will become more important.
- Information processing is going to produce increased ambivalence. Paradoxically, more information is going to mean that people are less able to act.
- Signals of disaster are going to occur more quickly but they will be weaker and more ambiguous.
- Macro-organizational assumptions and corporate values may decline in their appeal. Although there will be larger alliances, there will also be more emphasis on gifted individuals, protean and boundaryless careers, entrepreneurs, etc.

These assumptions, as Weick argued, imply that management will be more about perception and exception; less about long-term vision and strategies because of the rapid pace of change and more about situational awareness, e.g. projects, and managing in particular contexts. Broadly in line with Allred, Snow and Miles' (1996) speculations on the future of managerial careers, Weick offered a series of modules and issues that managers might find useful to learn about in the future. Interestingly, few of these modules and issues form part of the curriculum of most UK and US business schools.

Manager Education for the Future

1. The dynamics of trust to enable more effective collaboration in larger strategic alliances
2. Collective enquiry and situational awareness to improve early diagnosis of increasingly weak signals of change
3. The craft of practitioner research to deal with the needs of knowledge creation and learning to learn
4. The limits of human functioning, so that people can identify the cues of breakdown through stress, etc.
5. Speaking up to power so that bad news can travel fast and in an upwards direction
6. The skills of disengagement, so that people can get in and out of projects fast

7. Updating skills to help people seek and deal with disconfirming information
8. Listening skills

Interestingly, both Weick's (1999, August) and Huff's (1999, September) advice to the business schools appears to be: "do not to attempt to compete on Mode 2 territory". Huff believes that university business schools do not have the resources to match the large consulting firms or corporate universities that are and will continue to dominate Mode 2 knowledge creation and learning in the future. Instead, as Weick argued, business schools should help managers deal with the increasingly unknowable world by preparing them to see how vested interests work, the universality of vested interests and power in organizations, and to speak up and, if the need arises, to act out alternative interests. As situations weaken and the world of business and organizations becomes more idiosyncratic and pluralistic, the number of "real worlds" will increase: thus business schools would better serve their students by teaching "wisdom rather than vocation, mindfulness rather than rationality and character rather than technicalities" (Weick, 199, August).

Finally, we have to ask the questions: how should management education be carried out and who should be the recipients of this education? The data and arguments so far imply more learning of "softer skills" and "learning in context". Unfortunately, we believe that the record of most US business schools, and a considerable number of the more traditional UK schools are weak on soft skills, whilst the evidence on learning transfer from "schooling" to the workplace does not provide encouraging reading for educators (Lave & Wenger, 1991; Fox, 1997).

On this first point – the record of business schools – Locke (1996) and others (e.g. Raelin, 1994) have argued that US graduate schools of management have been lacking in their contribution to the US economy and the practice of management in general. For example, Robert Kaplan (1992, quoted in Locke) claimed that American schools had contributed almost nothing to significant developments in the business world during the past half century, whilst Robert Samuelson (1990, quoted in Locke) condemned them for teaching "pseudo skills" such as strategic management, instead of providing students with on-the-job experience. Moreover, As Locke (1996) commented:

> *Their professors are chastised for building elegant, abstract models and their graduates condemned for being critters with lop-sided brains, icy hearts and shrunken souls.*

On the second point – the transfer of learning – we have to acknowledge the importance of informal learning at work, the role of communities of practice in facilitating learning in management (Sealy-Brown & Duguid, 1994) and the negative consequences of teaching management out of context (Fox, 1994). Whilst the calls for mangers to become involved in lifelong learning implies more learning in the classroom, perhaps, as Woodall & Welchman (1998) have pointed out, we need to place much greater emphasis on how we can assist firms in taking work-based management development more seriously and, at the same time, learn to integrate our educational efforts into action learning projects, job rotation, internal consultancy and mentoring schemes. In this connection, one of the most interesting examples is Roth's (1999) learning history approach that combines traditional research skills with situated learning.

Mintzberg (1999, August) recently addressed these issues in a typically robust and iconoclastic fashion. His presentation was directed at the questions of: who gets into the classroom and what should they do when they get there? In a presentation directed mainly at the US business schools, one of his major conclusions were that US MBA programs were directed at the "wrong people" (full time students with no real experience of management); using the "wrong ways" (too much emphasis on prescriptive cases and disconnected theory instead of learning in context) and for the "wrong reasons" (by creating a genuine business class that believed they had the right to lead because of credentials earned in the classroom). Thus, whereas, US schools produced 100, 000 students per year, most were full-time, in contrast to the UK which, although educating far fewer, focused on part-time, executive managers. Among his main pointers for the future of MBA programs were:

- Programs should be aimed at training practising managers. Thus part-time students who were company sponsored should be the focus of management education, as distinct from technical education which should be the subject of specialist masters degrees,
- Teaching methods should focus on action learning and reflective learning, in which tutors literally "drop in" learning material to managers to fit with their agenda. These student managers could then make what use they like of it and learn from each other. The corollary of this action learning and reflective learning would be to de-emphasize " lectures and have you any questions" approachesand prescriptive case study pedagogy, during which inexperienced students were expected to pronounce on situations where they had no previous experience.

- Program should dispense with "silo" design, in which participants coming from functional backgrounds were immediately put back into their silos, instead of focusing on the management of integrated business problems,
- Programs should be international and collaborative to reflect the world of business.

His model for MBA programs for the future, as distinct from the kind of specialist masters degrees that are common in Europe, was the Masters in Practising Management (MPM) program run collaboratively with McGill (Canada), Lancaster (UK), INSEAD (France), the Indian Institute of Management, and a number of Japanese universities. Interestingly, this is a model that is become increasingly widespread in the UK and mainland Europe (including a more modest one operated by one of the authors).

Conclusions

In this paper , we have attempted to summarise some of the literature and evidence on changing managerial careers, management development and education in the UK and the US. Although we find that the mainly Us rhetoric is outstripping reality - especially in the UK and Europe - there is robust evidence of substantive changes in organizational forms and in career patterns. Boundarylessness, career-resilience and protean contracts are likely to become more prevalent and will have significant implications for management development and education. The most important of these implications is that there is likely to be increasing demands on employers and business schools to provide management development and management education. However, it is likely that such development and education will need to emphasize general transferable knowledge and skills to meet individual and employer demands for employability. Increasingly, in knowledge-based economies, "knowing how" rather than "knowing what" will be demanded by both parties to the employment relationship. And in line with Weick (1999, August) and Mintzberg's (1999, August) arguments on the future of management education, business schools should concern themselves with teaching "wisdom", "mindfulness" and "character" rather than compete on vocation and technicalities with the increasingly powerful corporate sector. As Mintzberg in particular has argued, however, the US schools may have something to learn from the increasingly international schools in Europe in providing more relevant wisdom and greater insights from more "real worlds" in the global arena. In turn, European schools have much to learn from the professionalism of the US schools in delivering a brand of business education that is still envied by much of the rest of the world.

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The Impact of Facilitative Leadership: Multi-rater Measurement of Behavioral Outcomes of Managerial Leaders

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The outcome of this study reveals that perceived facilitative behaviors are critical in best practices of leaders. These findings link performance outcomes of leaders and members and demonstrate the importance of multi-rater feedback measures. The facilitative managerial-leadership model is very effective in harnessing resources and human capital to meet business challenge. This reinforces the need for evolving and revolutionary managerial- leadership practices to keep pace with the changing demands of the marketplace.

Keywords: Leadership, Management, Organizational Change

Everyday, we awake to front page and business section stories about the changes that come with the globalization of markets, collaborative work structures, and the drive for e-speed and innovation. W. Burke speaks about significant shifts in organizational dynamics from "moderate to warp speed" from "micro to macro" and from "management to leadership" (Burke, 1994). As we sip our morning coffee, we may not always think about how these changes create an ever-increasing demand for savvy managerial-leadership skills and competencies. But as we move from home to office, we understand that this demand and need have never been greater, or more complex. We witness and are apart of the drama of how the compression of organizational hierarchies are creating more responsive "networked" organizations that are more fluid in structure, processes and politics. These revolutionary organizational and cultural changes underscore new business realities with new definitions for leadership.

"Leadership is not so much the exercise of power itself as the empowerment of others" (Bennis and Nanus, 1997). We've heard that e-word before it was ever associated with email or e-speed. The difference today is that empowerment is no longer a "nice-to-have" trite concept, but the cornerstone of how to grow business by helping employees and customers become enterprise "owners" and partners. The top ten of *The 100 Best Companies to Work For* (*Fortune, January 2000*) are noteworthy because of their financial success, but because they also use the power of empowerment to draw and retain talent in a competitive labor pool market. Southwest Airlines, Cisco Systems, Synovus Financial listen to employee input and make changes accordingly, realizing that "what differentiates top companies from their competitors is often the quality of their highly skilled workers." (Levering & Moskowitz, 2000). The savvy CEOs at these companies "understand that having a special relationship with employees is key to their success." (*Ibid.*)

In fact, "best practice organizations always assess the impact of their leadership development process." (Fulmer & Wagner, 1999). Smart organizations such as General Electric, Hewlett Packard, and Johnson & Johnson realize that the development of leadership becomes a competitive strategy to keep their companies alive and thriving in the midst of change. The need to explore a broader range of leadership styles suited for these "empowered," collaborative environments becomes apparent (Bass & Avolio, 1997).

The Impact of Leaders: Bad News and Good

Unfortunately, the literature reveals a high failure rate for leaders. Some researchers indicate that between 60 and 75% of leaders fail (Hogan, Raskin, & Fazzini, 1990). This may be a modest estimate. What are the implications of such widespread failure? There is little doubt that replacing leaders is expensive in terms of money and in terms of the impact on others. The stress to employees and the financial impact to organizations are high. It has been estimated that replacing failed leaders can cost organizations hundreds of thousands, or even millions of dollars (Kaplan, 1991). Within the management, behavioral sciences and human resources disciplines, there is a need to

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better understand the complexities of managerial-leadership as a means of enhancing organizational performance and effectiveness.

While leadership is multidimensional and often difficult to operationalize, research has shown that leaders derail because they fail to build successful relations with others (Kramer, 1997; Van Velsor, 1997, 1998). Leadership, which is a social phenomenon, is constructed through interpersonal interaction (Berger & Luckmann, [1990] c1966; Kouzes & Posner, 1995; Vaill, 1989). It emerges as a result of the constructions and actions of both leader and associate. Management and business practice is being increasingly influenced by research that recognizes the impact of group dynamics, leadership traits, and motivation. Organizational climate studies reveal that 60 to 70% of employees, regardless of occupation or industry, report that the personal relationship to their leader is the most stressful part of the job (Hogan, Raskin, & Fazzini, 1990).

This bad news about the impact of leaders may be good news for human resource and change management professionals. It points to the need for accurate performance metrics that are aligned with the organization's values and goals. It points to the potential for those in human resources to become a strategy partner in helping an organization reach beyond "as is" states to what it can become. It requires a solid research basis for building a foundation that closes the gap between theory and application.

Manager or Leader?

The literature reveals a conceptual polarity between "leadership" and "management." This polarity tends to pit these two supposedly divergent schools of thought. This study points to the need to explore a new managerial-leadership model with best practice behaviors and attributes from each domain. For example, managerial-leaders need to be able to see ahead of today's realities to anticipate consumer needs and the changing demands of the marketplace. Concurrently they ensure that managerial resources are harnessed to get today's work done. Those who evolve into higher-performing managerial-leaders will begin to implement the behavioral practices that create innovative outcomes based on the ability to accomplish challenging goals through and with others.

Such change does not come easily. Old habits do not pass on by means of fairy dust magic or by brandishing the latest empowerment fad about. Managers and leaders will tend to reinforce the organizational rules that heretofore served them well. In doing so, they may actually work against employee participation and the development of self-responsibility, self-initiative, and self-control (Smircich & Morgan, 1982, in Kolb, Rubin, & Osland [Eds.], 1991). Yet, these are the very competencies required for success in participatory work structures.

Facilitative Managerial-Leadership

What then, is the facilitative managerial-leadership model and why is it important? The findings of this study indicate that effective managerial-leadership is significantly connected to perceptions about facilitative attributes. These attributes relate to a leader's congruence, positive regard, empathy, ability to challenge the process, inspire others, enable others to act, model the way, and offer satisfactory rewards. The word *facilitation* or *facilitate* is derived from French and Latin etymological roots. *Facilis* means easy to do and *facere* means to do or make (*Webster's Deluxe Unabridged Dictionary,* 1983). In the realm of psychology, facilitation has to do with "increased ease of performance of any action, resulting from the lessening of nerve resistance by the continued successive application of the necessary stimulus: opposed to inhibition" (*Ibid.*, 1983). Facilitative leadership by definition lessens resistance and increases the likelihood of success. This is accomplished by becoming more facilitative and more skillful at effective managerial-leadership attributes and practices.

Traditionally, leaders have been identified as being focused on "big picture" issues, whereas managers have focused on specific work plans and outputs. Facilitators have been identified with focusing on assisting work groups in working together more effectively. However, managerial-leaders need to be flexible enough to manage, lead, and facilitate. All of these roles are important for organizational success. No single style is appropriate in all situations (Bass, 1985, Bass & Avolio, 1997; Tichy, 1997; Weaver & Farrell, 1997).

The facilitator role provides the bridge between what seems to be two disparate roles. Decentralized, participatory organizations need leaders who are facile in seeing beyond the work being accomplished today to be able to anticipate changing requirements for the future. The facilitative managerial-leader will become increasingly skilled in a number of roles that encompass knowledge, skills, and attributes in tactical, strategic, operational, and organizational science arenas. This is needed to succeed in an ever-increasing complex, changing environment.

What do some of these new managerial-leadership practices look like? This study examines perceived behaviors of "leaders at their best." An example of a best practice, is the ability to "challenge the process." Jacques Nasser, the CEO of Ford Motor Company is driving significant change in a seemingly unusual manner. Nasser states that "we have to change our fundamental approach to work— we have to change our DNA" (Wetlaufer, 1999). He is overseeing a far-reaching, cascading education program that involves all of Ford employees and leaders. The

teaching is multifaceted using a "train the trainer approach" and 360-degree feedback. Nasser believes that teaching drives change better than any other way, and Ford now has more than 1,500 leader-teachers worldwide who have reached a total of 55,000 salaried employees" (*Ibid.*).

When managerial-leaders teach their employees, they are encouraged to actually practice the concepts espoused. This "modeling the way" behavior, in turn, assists constituents to learn and practice facilitative managerial-leadership behaviors in their jobs. Employees become "shareholders" who are more highly motivated to be fully present and involved in their work lives. This evolving and transformational managerial-leadership model uses self as instrument, understands group dynamics, assists others in clarifying their task and task completion, and helps groups progress toward their goals (Weaver and Farrell, 1997).

It's About People

Research on managerial-leadership is best approached from a multi-disciplinary collaborative approach. This should include management, psychology, sociology, and organizational development and other disciplines. An extensive literature search of numerous sources across these disciplines was performed, which produced a wide range of factors describing the qualities, skills and socio-emotional attributes of effective managerial-leaders. In particular, it is important to appreciate the complexity of individual and organizational systems that factor in managerial-leadership success or derailment.

Leaders tend to fail because of relationship problems with others, including boss, peer, and subordinates. Leaders are enmeshed in a web of relationships (Lawler, 1986; Tichy, 1983 and 1997). Tichy's description of the technical, political and social aspects of organizational systems helps explain why technical brilliance alone will not create success. Viewing the impact of leadership from this lens helps to explain the cascading political and economic outcomes of derailed leaders. It points to the importance of understanding personal and group psychology and the informal, socio-aspects of system of relationships. Peter Vaill, a well-respected organization development specialist, has argued, "all management is people management, and all leadership is people leadership" (Vaill, 1989). Thus, regardless of whether one calls oneself a manager or leader, the common thread has to do with people.

Many business leaders will not recognize the name of Carl Rogers, one of the preeminent 20th century American psychologists who developed a human relations theory based on clinical practice. Nonetheless, most leadership and management textbooks and articles refer to the importance of interpersonal skills such as active listening or some variant of Rogers's non-directive approach as a prerequisite for employee empowerment, team building or humanistic management (Kramer, 1997). An influential source for this study is previous research performed by Kramer, who utilized Rogers's theory and brought it out of the shadows. This pivotal study offered a statistical methodology that captured *leaderly listening* factors from empirically driven data (*Ibid.*). These ideas and the Kramer approach helped to crystallize this researcher's interests in measuring perceptual feedback, which is critical in improving facilitative managerial-leadership abilities.

It's About Perception

The importance of understanding the power of perception cannot be overstated. This study denotes that leadership outcomes— effectiveness and satisfaction with the leaders and employees' willingness to perform beyond expectations— are indelibly tied to the employees' perceptions about their leader. This study focused on the behavioral outcomes of managerial-leaders measured by instruments that elicit constituents' perceptions of their leaders. An aspect of behavior that has not been consistently emphasized is the process of perception, especially that of person perception (Zalkind & Costello, 1962, in Kolb, Rubin, & Osland [Eds.], 1991). The notion of person perception is particularly important because managerial-leaders symbolize the organized situation in which they lead. Their behaviors and verbalizations create imagery in the minds of the organizational members, thus influencing actions within the setting as a whole. It is important to recognize and emphasize the power that the leader's position has on the frame of reference of others (Smircich & Morgan in Kolb, et. al, 1991).

How should employee perception and feedback be handled for managerial-leaders? In the past, the information flow and feedback came from the top of the organization to the bottom, with leaders giving evaluative feedback to constituents only. Leaders and managers were rarely given the kind of behavioral outcome information that could help them improve their performance and effectiveness (Hesselbein, Goldsmith, & Beckhard [Eds.], 1996; Kahnweiler, 1991; Lawler, Mohrman & Ledford, 1992; Schein, 1987; Weaver, 1997; Weisbord, 1987, 1992). In the story of *"The Emperor's New Clothes,"* the leader lacked critical operational and perceptual feedback data. What we know in terms of performance improvement is that what is unmeasured remains hidden from awareness and unchanged. The development of reliable and valid multi-rater assessments may help pave the way for enhanced communication within an enterprise.

Research Design and Questions

Rationale and Importance

This study addresses the gap in providing reliable data from a bottom-up perspective about beneficial managerial-leadership attributes in participatory environments. The issues that arise in relating to and with others must be addressed constructively (Harrington-Mackin, 1994). Measures of individual work behavior create a bridge between theory and practice (Naylor, Pritchard, & Ilgen, 1980). Performance measurement provides an impetus for performance improvement (Rummler & Brache, 1995). It provides a means to help make organizational expectations and standards explicit (Austin et al., 1991). The inference is that experiences and perceptions about leadership behaviors affect performance, and impacts the emotional and financial health of organizations as well (Zalkind & Costello in Kolb, et. al., 1991).

Perceptions often become reality. As we have previously seen, perceptions can be costly in terms of the reality of leadership derailment. The increase in collaborative work structures and processes has also influenced the flow of communication within an organization, which has subsequently created the need for exploring new questions about leadership. Confidential, perceptual feedback from constituents is needed to provide input in order to understand and clarify perceptions and to aid in interpersonal development. Multi-rater assessments, such as 360-degree feedback, may provide an avenue for constructive expressions about the social-emotional aspects of leadership that, if ignored and left to fester, can lead to failure for work groups and leaders.

Methods for Measurement

Three multi-rater assessments were used in this research to collect data on the multiple dimensions of managerial-leadership. The Kramer model provided a foundation for using multiple performance measures and studying convergence and correlations. The positive results of that study, based on the human relations theory of Rogers, called for further evaluation.

The three multi-rater assessments used in this study included: Leadership Practices Inventory (LPI) by Kouzes & Posner; Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ) by Bernard Bass; and Relationship Inventory (RI) by Barrett-Lennard. The key variables measured and the measurement tools used are outlined in *Table 1* below. These tools assessed perceived leadership practices relating to challenging the process, inspiring and enabling others to act, as well as attributes of routine, transactional management behaviors such as active management-by-exception. In addition, they addressed congruence, positive regard, and empathy as perceived by employees. Each assessment instrument has extensive research handbooks available that detail the statistical reliability and validity.

The three facilitative factors were derived from Rogers's human relations' theory based on his clinical experience. Rogers observed that these three fundamental conditions must be present in the therapeutic relationship for improvement to occur. These included empathy (accurate understanding), positive regard (respect), and congruence (genuineness). For his doctoral dissertation as a student of Rogers, Barrett-Lennard developed the Relationship Inventory (RI) in 1959. He developed the methodology based on the notion that the subjective experiences of individuals "can be meaningfully and usefully represented on a scale of quantity, provided the origins, procedures and main presumptions of such measurement are held in view" (Barrett-Lennard, 1986).

Since its validation in 1959, the RI has become a highly respected instrument in behavioral science research, used in over 400 research studies. Most reliabilities across the scales are .85 or above. The RI's diverse application is found well beyond the client-therapist relationship to other key relationships such as individuals and groups and supervisors and employees (Barrett-Lennard, 1986).

The Leadership Practices Inventory (LPI) was developed from the realm of business management and organization development. Kouzes and Posner's five practices of "leaders at their best" (see *Table 1*) were derived from their extensive research on the factors that managerial-leaders drew upon to be their personal best at leading others to get extraordinary things accomplished (Kouzes & Posner, 1995). Test-retest studies of the LPI on a database of nearly 60,000 respondents from around the world are ongoing. On the basis of a sample of 43,899 respondents from a wide array of professions, internal reliabilities ranged from .82 to .92 on the five factors. Test-retest reliabilities were at .93 or above.

The factors of routine, transactional management and the outcome factors (see *Table 1*) were derived from Bass's Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ). According to Bass, who has also done extensive research on leadership and performance issues, there are two types of leaders: transformational and transactional. "Transactional leadership is a process of gaining compliance from associates through contracts with the leader. The contractual relations may be explicit or implicit. The leader clarifies expectations and may exchange promises of reward or disciplinary threats for the desired effort and performance levels" (Bass, 1997). Bass (1985) established

the construct validity of the MLQ scales. In a series of nine samples (N = 2,080), based on leadership assessments made by members on MLQ Form 5X-Short, the average alpha coefficient reliability's for the 21 items ranged from .74 to .94 (Avolio, Bass, & Jung, 1996).

Table 1. Variables Measured and Measurement Tools

Key Variables	Measurement Tools
Rogers's Three Facilitative Conditions	
Leader is congruent Leader shows regard Leader is empathic	Barrett-Lennard's Relationship Inventory (RI) (40 questions)
Five Practices of Leaders at Their Best	
Challenging the process Inspiring a shared vision Enabling others to act Modeling the way Encouraging the heart	Kouzes & Posner's Leadership Practices Inventory (LPI) (30 questions)
Three Attributes of Routine Management (Transactional Leadership)	
Contingent reward Active management-by-exception Passive management-by-exception	Bernard Bass's Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ) (12 questions)
Three Leadership Outcomes as Assessed by Members	
Effectiveness of leader Satisfaction with leader Willingness to perform beyond expectations	Bernard Bass's Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ) (9 questions)

Research Population

The feedback data were collected in 1998 from members (N = 182) of a business unit of a large government-contractor systems engineering firm outside of Washington D.C. Anonymity and confidentiality of responses were guaranteed as part of this study. Empirical, quantitative research was conducted to test hypothesized relationships between factors pertaining to facilitative behaviors, best practices of leaders, leadership outcome factors and aspects of transactional, routine management. In the analyses, factor analysis and multiple regression statistical tests were performed. Redundancies were reduced by means of multivariate analyses. The numerous statistical tests were performed to ascertain whether the hypotheses, which relates to the three research questions, could be supported. The key statistical tests and the results will be outlined in the next section.

Hypotheses and Research Questions for Exploration

The key hypothesis was that facilitative conditions and best practices of leaders would show strong correlation. Furthermore, if a strong correlation existed, these combined factors could be labeled Facilitative Leadership (FL). Another hypothesis was that facilitative leadership qualities carry more weight (or explain more variation) in terms of employee's perceptions of leadership outcomes than aspects of routine, transactional management Routine Management (RM). The leadership outcomes relate to perceived effectiveness, satisfaction, and willingness to perform beyond what is expected (enhanced performance).

Three questions were posed for testing these hypotheses in the design of this study. They included the following. First, how strongly do the three facilitative conditions (congruence, regard, and empathy, based on the RI) correlate with the five practices of *"leaders at their best"* (challenging the process, inspiring a shared vision, enabling others to act, modeling the way, and encouraging the heart, based on LPI)? Second, to what extent do a leader's facilitative behaviors (congruence, regard, and empathy) predict each measure of leadership outcomes (employees' assessments of perceived leadership effectiveness, satisfaction with leaders and willingness to perform beyond expectations)? Third, does perceived facilitative leadership have more impact on leadership outcomes than aspects of routine, transactional management? If so, what is the added value of leaders' facilitative behavior (based on the scales in the RI and the LPI) above and beyond three attributes of routine management (based on the MLQ) of contingent reward, active management-by-exception, and passive management-by-exception?

Statistical Tests and Results

In the following paragraphs, a concise summary is given of all of the statistical tests performed for each research question and the significant outcome. These paragraphs are ordered in "steps" to correspond to each question posed. The findings indicate that effective leadership is significantly connected to perception about facilitative attributes. But, just how much of leading is facilitative?

Step One: Did the facilitative conditions correlate with the five best practices of leaders at their best? If they did, how strong was this correlation? Factor analysis and canonical correlation were performed using the three facilitative conditions as the independent variables (IV) and the five best practices as the dependent variables (DV). Facilitative leadership factors explained more about members' ratings of leaders' effectiveness and satisfaction with the leader over and above aspects of routine management. The redundancy index suggests that 44% (at .0001 significance level) of leadership practices overlap with relational/facilitative factors. Pearson and factor analyses were significant. A high canonical correlation produced (80%) and the redundancy index of 44% provide evidence that facilitative behaviors can be mapped onto practices of leaders at their best. This relationship between IV and DV was labeled "Facilitative Leadership" (FL). Question One was supported.

Step Two: Was a link demonstrated between constituent's views of a leader's facilitative behavior and the leader's outcomes? Multiple regressions were performed with the dependent variables (DV) of the three leadership outcomes (see *Table 1*) and the IV of the facilitative condition set, producing significance ranging from 52 to 73%. Canonical correlations between the DV set and FL produced the canonical variate Y that measures the phenomenon of leadership and facilitative behaviors together, which we have labeled "facilitative leadership" (FL). Facilitative leadership by itself accounts for 73 to 85% of the variation in the three leadership outcome measures. Based on these findings, we can use facilitative assessments of leaders to explain outcomes of member ratings on the perceived effectiveness of leaders, members' satisfaction with leaders, and members' willingness to perform beyond expectation. Question 2 is supported.

Step Three: What is the added value of facilitative leadership above and beyond routine, transactional management? Stepwise multiple regressions found that facilitative leadership is the strongest predictor of effectiveness (82%) and satisfaction (55%). However, reward was the strongest predictor for willingness to perform beyond expectations (54%). Strong negative correlations for transactional management and outcome measures were revealed. Contingent reward, an aspect of routine management, proved important to worker's willingness to perform beyond expectations. Reward can be facilitative when used to support the growth needs of members (Bass & Avolio, 1997). Questions 3 is supported with the understanding that contingent reward is also a critical outcome variable.

Discussion

Numerous tests were performed in the data analyses to ascertain the outcome of the research questions. The high multicollinearity between the predictor and criterion sets indicated a possible underlying pattern or positive relationship between facilitative/relational attributes and best practices of leaders. Facilitative leadership by itself explains between 73 to 85% of the variation in leadership outcomes. 44% of best leadership practices are facilitative in nature, shown by the overlap with relational/facilitative factors.

The findings indicate that employees are willing to perform beyond expectations when they perceive facilitative managerial-leadership behaviors (such as modeling the way and enabling others to act). In addition, performance is tied to the appropriate use of contingent rewards (e.g., recognition or bonus plans), usually considered part of the domain of transactional or routine management. This sends a message about the importance of connecting performance issues to employees' need for facilitative managerial-leadership behaviors and tangible

evidence of appreciation for their efforts. As previously indicated, this coincides with Bass's notion that reward can provide a facilitative means for growth and transformation if it connects with what is rewarding to employees.

In terms of possible limitations of this study, caution must be exercised in how correlational studies are interpreted. With any correlational research, causality of relationships cannot be assigned. Multivariate statistical analyses were applied to intact rather than experimental groups. A "random assignment of objects to experimental treatments is necessary for the validity of our analysis and any inferences of causality between the experimental variable and the criterion variable." (Kachigan, 1991).

This, of course, is not to say that correlational data cannot reveal factors that are almost certainly causally related, "but... the relationship may also be due, either in whole or in part, to other unidentified confounding variables" (*Ibid., 1991*). There is also the possibility that other variables, such as gender, race, functional disciplines, or cultural background may be related to the facilitative predictor set or the leadership criterion set or both. To maintain confidentiality, it was not possible to include demographic information in this study. Also, it is difficult to generalize the findings to other industries or occupations with different population characteristics. However it can be noted that in Kouzes and Posner's extensive leadership research, their "... findings are relatively consistent across people, genders, and ethnic and cultural backgrounds, as well as across various organizational characteristics (such as functions the organization employs, size and its public- or private-sector status)" (Kouzes & Posner, 1995).

Implications for HRD Professionals and Conclusions

There are several reasons why this study is important and relevant for HRD and change management professionals. For one, it is critical that the knowledge base for understanding key managerial-leadership factors related to positive outcomes is increased through sound research. Second, there are numerous implications for how this data and knowledge can be applied in HRD and change management practices. These include providing: selection criteria for managerial-leaders and succession planning; strategic means for measuring and increasing productivity and profitability; a consulting basis to decrease conflict and to increase worker satisfaction and willingness to perform beyond what is expected; research data for improvements in formal and informal managerial-leaders' and work teams' training and development; competency-based performance improvements; a means for structuring incentive pay and rewards to boost performance; and assistance to decrease turnover, leadership derailment, and monetary losses and product failures.

These results may be useful in increasing social and emotional intelligence for working with and in work groups. They offer learning benefits to current and future managerial-leaders at all levels in organizations. It also raises the need for additional research on multi-rater assessment tools and perceptions.

In closing, this article has presented theoretical underpinnings, key research findings, and discussion of results, limitations, and implications for HRD professionals based on this empirical research. The need for an understanding how to improve organizational effectiveness through facilitative managerial- leadership and collaborative work structures is vital. To remain competitive in this aggressive market environment, managerial-leadership attributes and behaviors need to keep pace with changes that are creating collaborative, agile work structures and strategies that encompass innovation and speed.

We have seen that complexity and speed of change are increasingly influencing HRD and managerial-leadership practices. These changes make it even more important to recognize the impact of group dynamics, leadership behaviors, and perception. HRD professionals need to understand and stay current with research in order to assist organizations in integrating a facilitative model that will also serve the business objectives of the enterprise. The HRD and change management professionals, as effective strategic partners in organizations, are in positions to influence managerial-leaders to become more facilitative as they challenge the process and model the way.

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